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AUTHOR English, Fenwick W.; Zaharis, James

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ABSTRACT

This publication is designed for use with local school district staff members to provide information concerning the development of differentiated staffs on the basis of functional requirements. It is quasi-programed to provide stimuli to search for new alternatives to staff organization. After defining the terms, the authors consider the various kinds of organization and the staffing patterns needed in the client-centered school system. Work specialization and the way in which it relates to instructional improvement are discussed. Another section deals with personal orientation to teaching, ranging from extreme task orientation to extreme people orientation, and a model is proposed which would provide a balance between these extremes. The relationship between commitment and performance is also considered, as well as ways of improving team decision making. The document concludes with two group activities and a brief annotated bibliography. (MBM)



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HOW TO BUILD A MODEL OF STAFF DIFFERENTIATION

Fenwick W. English

and

James Zaharis Associate Director

A Step by Step Guide in the Development Of a Situational Specific Site Model Of Differentiated Staffing

> George N. Smith Superintendent Mesa Public Schools

INTRODUCTION

Since 1965 there has been a great deal of interest generated in the concept of Differentiated Staffing. The professional literature has been increasingly abundant with descriptive and pro and con articles on the subject. However as one surveys the literature, one is impressed with the fact that there is concentration upon one primary model of Differentiated Staffing.

This publication, which is the result of the efforts of the staff of the Arizona-Mesa-SWCEL Project, is designed for use with local school district staff members. It provides baseline information concerning the nature of formulating organizations upon the basis of functional requirements. This is the first such publication devoted to Differentiated Staffing.

The publication format is quasi programmed and is in the broad sense a "self-instructional" course. It provides the reader with stimuli to search for new alternatives to staff organization.

The Center for Differentiated Staffing at the Claremont Graduate School is pleased to publish and make available this publication.

William R. Fielder, Director

Joseph M. Conte, Associate Director

Center for Differentiated Staffing Claremont Graduate School August 1, 1970 TO FLUID STAFFING PATTERNS .

"Dr. Robert Sobel, Associate Professor of History at Hofstra University, says that the British created a civil-service job in 1803 calling for a man to stand on the Cliffs of Dover with a spyglass. He was supposed to ring a bell if he saw Napoleon coming. The job was abolished in 1945."

Up the Organization, Robert Townsend, Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1970.

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Developing a Differentiated Staff Model

First, what are the important parts of a staffing model?

PEOPLE (=5-)

TIME



SPACE



Additional considerations are:

· WHAT ARE THE GOALS OF THE ORGANIZATION?

WHAT ARE THE TASKS WHICH WEED TO BE ACCOMPLISHED?

WHO IS MOST QUALIFIED TO PERFORM THESE TASKS?

HOW SHALL THE TASKS BE GROUPED?

HOW WILL WE KNOW IF THE NEEDS HAVE BEEN MET?

Are we all talking about the same thing? Let's define our TERMS:

- Organization: a collectivity of people engaged in the common pursuit of an agreed upon set of goals (implied or stated).
- Staffing patterns: the manner in which people are deployed to accomplish the goals of the organization.
- Differentiated Staffing: a deployment pattern of people in an organization which is based upon specialization and is called the division of labor.
- Work Specialization: (the division of labor). The breaking of a whole job requiring many skills into related pieces thereby enabling people performing those pieces to specialize (narrow the range) and perfect a smaller group of skills. When specialization of work occurs along horizontal lines it is departmentalization. When specialization occurs along vertical lines it is called a ranking or hierarchy.
- Role: an organized pattern of behavior in accordance with a given set set of expectations which when formalized by a job description delineating rights and duties, equals a position.
- The Formal Organization: an organization founded on specific goals which includes legitimized roles and positions; the organizational flow chart.
- The Informal Organization: that spontaneous grouping of people within formal organizations which are usually not recognized officially, i.e., the coffee klatch, the boiler room gang.
- Bureaucratic authority: authority which is based upon position in hierarchy of other roles and presumes some positions being subordinate to others.
- Professional authority: assumes a collegial rather than hierarchical relationship and rests on demonstrated knowledge and/or technical competence.

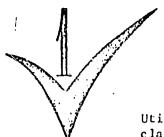
What Kinds of Organizations Are There?

Determining who is the client:

Peter M. Bala and W. Richard Scott have developed a simple typology of organizations which is helpful in understanding how organizations differ, for example, how school systems and a department store chain vary in societal functions? Blad and Scott have developed a simple yardstick. They ask "cui bono" or "who benefits?" By this index there are four basic types or organizations. They are:

	Турс	Example	Who Benefits?
1.	Mutual Benefit Associations	Unions Political parties	The Members
2.	Service Organizations	School systems Hospitais	The Clients
3.	Business Organizations	Stores Corporations	The Owners
4.	Civic Organizations	Police Department Army	The Public in general

Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations, Chandler, San Francisco, California, 1962.



Organization

1. Penney's Department Store

Utilizing Blau and Scott's organizational typology, classify the following kinds of organizations.

Type

	National Education Assoc	Liation		******		
3.	Protective Order of Elks	S				
4.	The Lutheran Church					
5.	The Forest Service					
6.	Prescott College					
.7.	Cement Workers Local 115	5				·
8.	Salt River Project					
9.	Republic Party			•	<u>, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , </u>	mentition towardstate 1
10.	Jones Chevron Station	,				
11.	The Asthma Alergy Clinic	2 ,				
12.	Apache Insurance Agency					
13.	The Rotary Club	,	· 		<u>.</u>	
14 .	Arizona National Guard					
15.	Highway Patrol	ı,				·
That seco	times it can be argued the is, other members or ground or third level. Take	oups may li the follow	kewise	indirectly	/ benefi	tata
•	fits" in order (if there	is one).				
E.g.	American Airlines	owners_		clients	<u>.</u>	
•			_ ·	clients	-	
E.g.	American Airlines	owners	·	clients	- 	
E.g. 16.	American Airlines Gino's Pizza Parlor	owners	 ·	clients	- 	
E.g. 16. 17.	American Airlines Gino's Pizza Parlor City Planner Engineers,	owners	 ·	clients	 	
E.g. 16. 17. 18.	American Airlines Gino's Pizza Parlor City Planner Engineers, Newspaperman's Guild	owners	·	clients	- .	
E.g. 16. 17. 18.	American Airlines Gino's Pizza Parlor City Planner Engineers, Newspaperman's Guild Phoenix Airport Corp.	owners Inc.	·	clients		
E.g. 16. 17. 18. 19.	American Airlines Gino's Pizza Parlor City Planner Engineers, Newspaperman's Guild Phoenix Airport Corp. Demas Volkswagen	owners Inc.	·	clients		
E.g. 16. 17. 18. 19.	American Airlines Gino's Pizza Parlor City Planner Engineers, Newspaperman's Guild Phoenix Airport Corp. Demas Volkswagen Slenderelaa Salon	owners Inc.	·	clients		
E.g. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22.	American Airlines Gino's Pizza Parlor City Planner Engineers, Newspaperman's Guild Phoenix Airport Corp. Demas Volkswagen Slenderelaa Salon Hibrow Secretarial School	owners Inc.	·	clients		
E.g. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22.	American Airlines Gino's Pizza Parlor City Planner Engineers, Newspaperman's Guild Phoenix Airport Corp. Demas Volkswagen Slenderelaa Salon Hibrow Secretarial School Apache Wells Pharmacy	owners Inc.	·	clients		

School Systems and Their Clients

School systems are client-centered organizations. The clients are the students. Indeed, the difference between a bureaucratically operated organization and a professional one is the degree to which the client actually benefits from the functioning of that organization. (Are parents clients?) In order for an organization to be client-centered, it must recognize differences in clients. Compare for example the difference between a hospital and a school system. Compare the staffing pattern of a hospital with a school.

Staffing patterns must reflect differences in clients. If great diversity exists with clients, such differences are visible in staffing patterns. A cursory comparison between hospitals and schools would reveal that public schools are not as specialized, that is, the division of labor in education does not compare with that in medicine. Are the differences any less? are they as important? are such comparisons valid?

A staffing pattern (the formalized deployment system) is <u>INVISIBLE</u>. One manifestation of a staffing pattern in pushlic schools is the school schedule. The school schedule incorporates all three parts of a staffing model: time, space and people (students and teachers). If the schedule does not recognize client differences, a pronounced uniformity of time, space and people will be apparent. What do most school schedules look like? If school schedules reflect a rigid uniformity of time, space and staff, what would it indicate about the assumptions we have made about the client, client diversity, learning, teaching, and the level of specialization needed?

Di

Directions: List at least five assumptions regarding learning, teaching, and specialization which must logically be true if school schedules are marked by a high degree of uniformity in time, space and staff utilization.

ssum	<u>ptions Abou</u>	t Learning Assum	ing Uniform Time	Cnane -	J C. C.	
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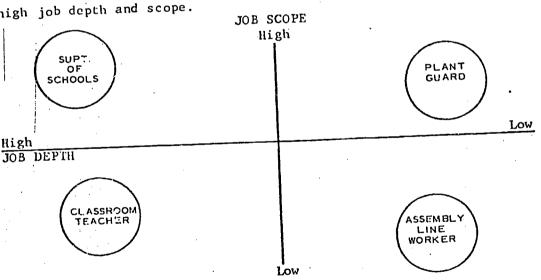
Another Look at Work Specialization (Division of Labor)

In considering the possibility of specializing tasks and creating new positions in public schools, it may be helpful to consider two aspects of a person's job. The first is job depth and the second is job scope.*

Job Depth: the range of tasks (from simple to complex) which must be performed by a job incumbent.

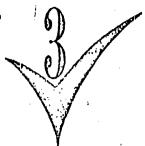
Job Scope: the range of the application of the tasks in the whole organization for which the job incumbent is responsible.

The quadrant below illustrates job depth and job scope. An assembly line worker may be said to have low job depth and low job scope. A Plant Guard may be said to have high hob scope and very low job depth. A Teacher may have (in traditional situations) a high job depth and a narrow job scope. A Superintendent, on-the-other-hand, possesses very high job depth and scope.



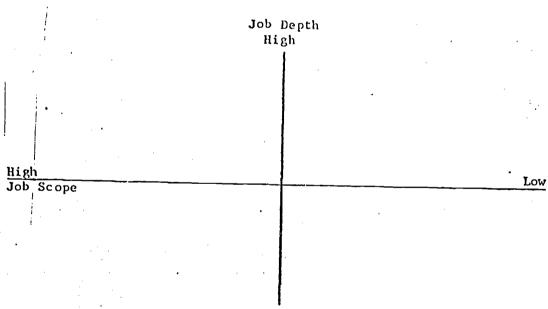
It is important to note here that the quadrant is not a value judgement of the worth of the individual. It is, rather, a simple classification device for examining the varying dimensions of assessing a job/position along two dimensions.

^{*}The terms "job scope" and "job depth" are taken from Allan Filley and Rebert House, Managerial Process and Organizational Behavior; (New York: Scott, Poresman, 1969) pp. 214-216.



Directions: Classify the following types of jobs with circles on the quadrant of job depth and job scope.

```
Circle 1: a general buildi
                              contractor
Circle 2: a linotype opera
Circle 3: a heart surgeon
Circle 4:
           an architect
Circle 5:
          a car brake specialist
Circle 6:
           a taxi cab driver
Circle 7:
          a beautician
Circle 8:
           the mayor of a city
Circle 9: an airplane pilot
Circle 10: a grocery store clerk
```



Questions:

- 1. What relationship is there between job scope and depth and salary in our society?
- What relationship is there between salary level and status in our society?
- 3. Are there other "job benefits" affiliated with a specific position on the quadrant? What?

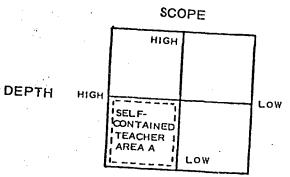
How Specialization of Work Relates to Instructional Improvement

The historic division of labor (work specialization) in education occurred in the splitting off of the role principal-teacher from teacher, and later from principal-teacher to superintendent. Although new roles have been created (such as supervisor, coordinator, counseler, vice-principal) the basic role differentiation has remained teacher-principal-superintendent.

A change in staffing such as team teaching in the early 50's prompted a closer look at creating flexible schools and later towards "open-space." Likewise, a move towards "open-space" will influence a change in a staffing pattern. Why is this so? Let us return to the job depth and scope quadrant for an illustration. In diagram #1 below, the total needs of a group of students for the area of reading is represented by the square. A teacher who is fairly well trained in teaching reading, but who is not a reading specialist meets the needs of the students represented in area A.

Diagram #1

TOTAL NEEDS OF STUDENTS IN THE AREA OF READING

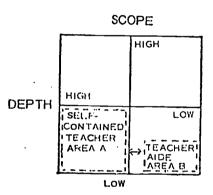


In diagram #2, a teacher aide is added. Note the effect on the role of the teacher. The job scope of the teacher is not affected because the level of the skills of the aide reach only the lower aspect of skills needed to meet the needs of the students in reading. The teacher's job depth is affected. The depth is reduced, thus allowing the teacher more time to concentrate on teaching, to the level of skills possessed by that teacher. The addition of a teaching aide means that instruction will be enhanced only to the degree it can be directed in stronger doses and for

a more sustained length of time. It does not mean that instruction is any better in terms of being more expert or sophisticated. The percentage of the total area in which the needs of students are met is increased (A+B).

Diagram #2

TOTAL REEDS OF STUDENTS IN THE AREA OF READING



It is important to remember that the addition of aides while differentiating the role of the teacher (separating the tasks) does not increase the level of teacher specialization or sophistication. It is merely a redistribution of existing skills enabling the teacher to concentrate on commanding a narrower range. This is not an addition to, but a consolidation of and a refinement of the state of existing teaching skills.

Diagram #3

TOTAL NEEDS OF STUDENTS IN THE AREA OF READING

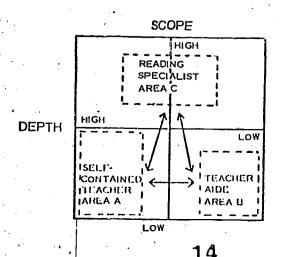


Diagram #3 illustrates how teaching expertise is brought to bear to meet the needs of students in reading. It is met by creating a new role with an advanced level of expertise and skills in the form of a reading specialist. This was is the most common and efficient. Note that the depth and scope of the teacher is not affected by the addition of the new role and that the total areas (A + B + C) meets more of the needs of the students in reading. Since such roles usually consume extensive hours of training and experience, they are limited both by the investment in input (training) and available resources (salary, for one) to utilize in an organization.

The other alternative is to train every teacher who teaches, reading, which is uneconomical in terms of available training resources, and in utilization within organizations. Such an assumption would mean that every teacher at the elementary level would have to be trained in every subject in considerable depth (there are at least 17 subjects) to upgrade the level of expertise to meet the needs of children.

It is improbable that the total needs of students will ever be met since (1) the resources of organizations are relatively fixed (people, materials, money, etc.) and (2) adding specialists increases the parameters of what the needs of students are, that is, what is knowable about the needs of students expands as our knowledge and insight into what they need expands. It is assumed that the human being is of a sufficiently complex nature to be infintely unknown. The bringing of specialists into an organization raises the level of what is known and hence the boundaries of rationality are continually expanding. This is why it is important to identify student baseline objectives for instruction in performance terms so as levels of specialists are added to increase the efficiency of the organization for each student to attain a minimum expectancy level. Otherwise, like inflation, roles are continually added (the first law of bureaucracy is survival, the second is expansion).

Specialization and Humanization: Are They Compatible?

There are those who insist specialization is bad per se, because it will dehumanize the school. The question of specialization and humanization are actually separate entitities. The link between the two is the

human element - the teacher. Some traditional elementary schools are prisons and so are some secondary schools. The question of whether the school climate is humane or not depends largely on the quality of human relations between staff and principal and the social setting in which the school is located.

Specialization can be a tool by which the school provides for the individual differences in its clients, or it can be a process by which the irrelevant is extended and perpetuated. How can we know if it will be one or the other?

Product vs. Process Organizational Development

Organizational development may occur along two alternate lines, with major differences in the results of both. First, if process if emphasized in the development of the organization, then the specialization of skills is the chief line of differentiation. As positions are created, the alternative possibility of advancement within a skill area open up, as opposed to advancement in the administrative hierarchy. What is suggested is that skills are laid out end to end and grouped into job clusters on the basis of pre-established criteria, i.e. job difficulty, complexity, etc.

The greatest dangers of developing an organization along process lines is that the product (in the school's case the client) is deemphasized and there is the possibility of increased communication difficulties and hence an increase in organizational conflict. This can become a real problem where differentiation is accomplished by horizontal specialization called departmentalization.

The product centered organization focuses its services on its clients, especially in the case of the schools. Etzioni* has noted that "an organization is less likely to attend to client needs to the extent that it is independently financed and a monopolistic source of client service." A client-centered (product) organization like the schools must inevitably

Amitai Etzioni. Modern Organizations, (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1964.)

specialize, but the lines along which the specialization occurs must be guided in order to maintain a client-centered perspective. Specialization should be related to the accomplishment of specific organizational objectives (student outcomes).

Historical Lines of Specialization

Historically, specialization has occurred along lines of wellestablished authority and resulted in the traditional pyramidal shaped
organization. This structure stems from the Church (where the word
hierarchy originated) and from the military. The working vocabulary
of organizational specialization are the following terms:*

Departmentation: The ways in which the organization is divided into segments or units, divisions, or sections.

Job Definition: The grouping of tasks or functions into jobs.

Particularly important is the estimation of the proper degree of specialization.

Span of Control: The proper number of subordinates that a supervisor should direct.

Line and Staff: The grouping of people or functions into organizational units distinguished by goals and authority relationships.

The most controversial of the above concepts has been that of "span of control." Many organizational specialties argue that span of control is a meaningless and mythological concept, borrowed from the military and useless in modern organizations.

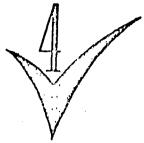
However, if span of control moves from a concept of man-to-man, to man-to-group, its relevancy to staffing becomes more obvious, especially if by control we mean the degree of skills possessed by the leader to solve problems and by which he can then direct others to follow. There is a difference in role authority, whether it is grounded in technical competence, or in authority based solely on hierarchical position. It is the purpose of the MESA project to derive a fluid base of roles which can be juxtaposed as the needs of clients change.

^{*}The criteria of this section were taken from Alan Filley and Robert House. Managerial Process and Organizational Behavior, p. 287.

The relationship of leadership at certain stages within team staffing patterns should take into consideration the following points:

- 1: Similarity of function: the degree to which functions performed by the various components are alike or different.
- 2. <u>Geographic continguity</u>: the physical location of the components and personnel in relationship to the leader.
- 3. Complexity of functions: the nature of the duties being performed by the organizational personnel.

 Takes into account the skills necessary to accomplish the objectives.
- 4. <u>Direction and control</u>: the nature of the personnel reporting directly to a principal.
- Coordination: the extent to which the principal must exert time and effort in keeping actions properly correlated and in keeping his activity key in with other activities.
- 6. <u>Planning</u>: the importance, complexity, and time required to review and establish future programs and objectives.
- 7. Organizational assistance: the help received by the principal from direct-line assistants, staff activities and assistants-to:



Directions: Read the comments made by a hypothetical work group trying to devise a new staffing pattern below, and characterize the factor relating to span of control which summarizes the comment from the previous page.

Example: "It won't work, we aren't in the same team area."

2 (geographic contiguity).

	COMPANY	(Soographic contiguity),
	COMMENTS	
	1.	"If the model looks like this, I can see where we will need at least three paraprofessional positions."
		"Marge and Jan will be able to work together fine, Marge complements Jan's skills in teaching reading!"
	3.	"One team should be working on basic skills, the other on subject area knowledge."
•	4.	"How does the Technical Assistant know what to do if she doesn't know who is responsible for evaluating her?"
•	5.	"Who is supposed to be responsible for keeping the teams together and moving towards a common goal?"
-	6.	"How will we know our program can be articulated with what's happening in the next grade level?"
	7.	"I don't believe interdisciplinary teams will work because none of us speaks the other's language."
į	8.	"I fail to understand how Mary can watch me teach if she is in the next wing 50 per cent of the time."
	9.	"Who's going to decide when we shift and when we should re-establish the team after a lesson is completed?"
	10.	"What's going to happen when a teacher is sick, how will a substitute be able to make his way around here?"
	11.	"I am very uneasy about all of this, I don't sense an immediate purpose, I don't know if we know where we are going."
	12.	"How can we hang it all together when we don't have
•:	13.	"I think Pete's grasp of language skills would enable hime to become a pretty good diagnostician in placing kids in the English program."
	14.	"We need to have frequent inter-team meetings in order to know how we are doing."
	15.	"The team leader should accept a major responsibility inestablishing the supervisory needs of the learning, media center when our children are there."
		The state of the s

Personal Orientation to Teaching: Concern for People or Production?

Most every teacher will profess to be interested in children. However, the placement of the student is often second to a love of subject, or a high work drive for production. This style is often a teaching style of orientation to work. It is likewise a managerial or administrative style. Some people call it "task oreinted" when a person is solely concerned with the tasks to be accomplished. When a person is more interested in people per se, and in the process by which they arrive at conclusions, he is said to be "process oriented."

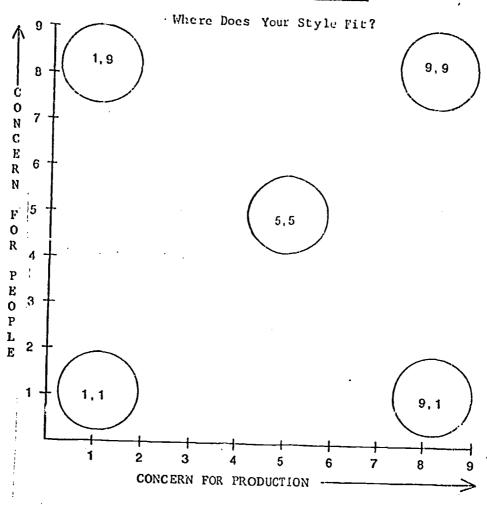
It is too neat to divide an orientation to work into these simple groups, but they do serve a useful purpose. Blake* divised what is called a "managerial grid." It is useful to study for a number of different reasons:

- 1. It speaks to the storeotype of elementary teachers being solely interested in children to the detriment of teaching them anything, and to the stereortype of the secondary teacher, who is not interested in kids but Loves Latin III.
- It is useful in conceptualizing how teams of teachers may pursue their objectives along different lines.
- 3. It may help in conceptualizing how leaders should behave with their groups of colleagues in planning, implementing, and evaluating instructional programs.
- 4. It is useful to conceptualize leader behavior in many other situations as well, such as committee work.



^{*}R. R. Blake, J. S. Morgan, and A. C. Bidwell, "The Managerial Grid: A Comparison of Eight Theories of Management," Advanced Management Journal, 1962.

BLAKE'S MANAGERIAL CRID



The Scale

- 1,1 (Low concern for people, low concern for production)

 Impoverished Organization. People are unconcerned, apathetic and indifferent. Nothing much happens and little is accomplished.
- 9,1 (Low concern for people, high concern for production) <u>Task</u>
 <u>Driven Organization</u>. People are things, men are commodities.

 People are to be manipulated and controlled. The end justifies the means.
- Medium concern for people, medium concern for work)

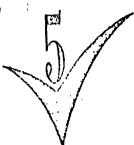
 Pendulum. The "muddle it through" "things could get worse"

 attitude. Often a wishy-washy stance where one day the whip

 is cracked and the next everything is "groovy."

- (High concern for people, low concern for production) Country

 Club Leadership. Work is pushed aside because it might interfere
 with "good tellowship" and the "one big happy family" syndrome.
- 9,9 (High concern for people, high concern for work) <u>Team Esprit</u>
 <u>Leadership</u>. Production or work is the integration of human and task requirements.



Directions: Examine each of the statements below. Then decide which of the five classic dimension of Blake's managerial grid the statement fits. Place the number in the blank.

Example:	remember." 1,1
 1.	"I am passing out the quotas for the production packets, each of us should complete three in one week and two the following week. Please, no comments!"
 2.	"Don't ask the teachers to do anything extra around here, it might ruin our working relationships."
3.	"Don't ask people what they think, just do it and tell them about it. The important thing is to get those announcements home to the parents."
 4.	"You can't ask anybody to do anything, nobody really wants to get involved or put in any extra time."
5:	"The committee is faced with the task of deciding how to change the homework policies of the school. We must stick to this assignment so we can get out of here at 5:00 p.m."
 6.	"We're gathered together to see if we can't identify the problem in the library so that it is better utilized by our classes. How do you feel about it? What do you think is the problem?"
 7.	"We suppose that our work could be improved, but we don't want to alienate the staff members who aren't here."

Towards 9,9 Models of Staff Differentiation

A 9,9 model of staff differentiation would indicate that Blake's criteria of the integration of work and human needs had been accomplished. Human needs must be centered on the client first and the professional second. The following is suggested as criteria by which a model of staff differentiation may be judged.

Evaluative Criteria for a 9,9 Staffing Pattern

- 1. The degree to which it is client-centered;
- The degree to which role specialization solves diagnosed client problems;
- 3. The degree to which roles are flexible and can be utilized and placed where client needs exist;
- 4. The degree to which roles can be abolished and recreated as client needs shift and new priorities are established;
- 5. The depth of specialization available to handle the known spectrum of client problems;
- The degree to which role shifts can be predicted which means basing such shifts on the needs of clinets in observable, performance terms;
- 7. The decree to which the expenditure of human energy accomplishes stated goals in the most efficient and effective manner (a blend in both psychological terms and hard dollars and cents which means that human needs and work tasks are highly integrated);
- 8. The degree to which a high non-repetition and duplication of skills exists and a scarcity of some types of skills to meet client problems (for example, a surplus of generalists when only a few are acutally necessary, and a dearth of specialists when a great number are needed) are balanced;
- The degree to which client needs are met (affective/cognitive/ psychomotor); high task rate completion rate and high pupil and staff morale;
- 10. The degree to which the staffing pattern can attract, utilize and retain skilled manpower over a period of time to accomplish the objectives of the organization.

The Relationship Between Commitment and Performance

There is an old joke about a pig and a chicken walking down a byway and seeing an advertisement for ham and eggs. Upon viewing the gastric selendor, the chicken proudly proclaimed to the pig, "I want you to know that I was involved in that." Whereupon, the pig commented candidly, "What for you is involvement is for me a total commitment."

How do you build in commitment to something? All sorts of devices and strategies have been tried with people, but involvement is the key, then commitment, and finally performance is affected. Notes Douglas McGregor, "The most productive man is one with substantial control over his own goals, but who allows those goals to be influenced by others. The deadly condition is one in which goals are set by the boss alone."*

It is for this reason that models of staffing patterns must involve and revolve around teacher perceptions of the job to be done. They can only be superimposed at a very superficial level.

McGregor lists criteria by which the effectiveness of a working team of people may be judged. Since the staffing models will be derived in working groups of teacher colleagues, it may well be advantageous to examine McGregor's criteria.

SCALES

Degree of Mutual Trust

High Suspicion 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 High Trust

Degree of Mutual Support

Every man for himself 1234567 Genuine concern for each other

Communications

Guarded, cautious 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Open, authentic
We don't listen to each other 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 We listen; we understand and are understood



^{*}Douglas McGregor, The Professional Manager, McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Team Objectives

Not understood by team 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Clearly understood by team

Team is negative toward objectives

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Team is committed to objectives

Handling conflicts within team

We deny, avoid, or suppress conflicts

2 3 4 5 6

We accept conflicts and "work them through"

Utilization of member resources

Our abilities, knowledge and experience aren't utilized by the team

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Our abilities, knowledge and experience are fully utilized by the team

Control Methods

1

Control is imposed on us

2 3 4 5 .

7

We control ourselves

Organizational Environment

Restrictive; pressure towards conformity

1 2 3 4 5 6

Free; supportive; respect for individual differences

A Word About Appropriate Team Member Skills

Earlier, we noted on the chart that 9,9 meant that the needs of people and the requirements of the work situation were integrated. The appropriate member skills for such a team may be summarized in the following chart. For a team to function effectively members must play both task oriented roles and process roles.



POSSIBLE TASK ROLES*

initiating activity seeking information seeking opinion giving information giving opinion claborating coordinating summarizing testing feasibility evaluating

POSSIBLE PROCESS ROLES*

encouraging
gatekeeping
standard setting
following
expressing group feeling
testing for consensus and
commitment
mediating
relieving

The Organization of Work: Creating a Functional Team Situation

Almost all models of differentiated staffing have been built on a process basis where roles were developed first, field tested, and then shaped to meet the needs of the clients. The essence in theory at least, of the MESA approach is that a staffing pattern must be client-centered, and the needs of the client should form the primary work base for peopling a team of professionals.

This not only demands a change in the present method of staffing schools, but veering off a bit from the approach used in traditional model building. The following is a suggested approach for building the kind of model (client-centered) inherent in the MESA design.

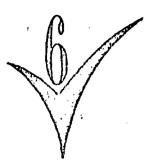
- 1. Identification of pupil performance objectives. Begin with the students. What do they need to know, feel, be able to do at the end of a given period of time? These should be listed specifically and in detail.
- 2. <u>Identification of primary work tasks</u>. From the lists of pupil performances, list of teacher tasks are developed to meet the pupil objectives.
- 3. Group primary work tasks. Teacher tasks are grouped on the basis of "wholes" that is, by similarities in degree of teaching skills necessary to accomplish the objectives, discipline (subject) cohesiveness or cross discipline relationships (inter-disciplinary) sketched out.

^{*(}These roles represent a composite list drawn from Bennis and Shepard, "Group Observation," The Planning of Change, New York, Holt, Rinehart, and Winst n, Inc., pp. 743-756.)

- 4. Prioritize primary work tasks. Essentially this is sequencing the work tasks. What has to be learned first? second? What are entry skills for students?
- 5. <u>Develop secondary work tasks</u>. Secondary work tasks are developed to accompany primary work tasks. Repeat steps #3 and #4.
- 6. Group work tasks by skill clusters. Group the necessary work tasks into homogeneous clusters and begin to relate to possible teacher roles.
- 7. Relate skill cluster areas to hypothetical teacher roles. "Play" with the roles. Arrange a set of tasks and create roles to match them. Juxtapose the roles, move them about, take hypothetical problems with students and ascertain how practical the roles are. Does such staff expertise exist? Could some roles which will be heavily used be further divided for greater pupil efficiency?
- 8. Develop first set of staff roles a pattern. Once roles start becoming crystallized, set them into a pattern and relate to time and space. Would facilities have to be changed? What about the paraprofessional support system needed? How would curriculum have to be altered? What about the media base, is it adequate?
- 9. Evaluate the staffing pattern. After sketching the staffing pattern out and noting three or four main tasks and skills for each role (in global terms) compare the staffing pattern to the following criteria for a first check:
 - a. is it client-centered?
 - b. do roles relate specifically and concretely to tasks?
 - c. is it flexible? can it respond to the changing needs of pupils?
 - d. is it centered on primary work tasks; does the natural ordering of roles use as its base a sequence based upon work priorities rather than an artificial ordering via authority relationships?
 - e. are controls of the patterns <u>transactional</u>, i.e., do all members of the unit, including the leader (principal) determine the structure, the responsibilities, and the sub-goals of the unit; the norms governing its operation, and the standards of performance?
 - f. will the staffing pattern provide opportunities for intrinsic rewards for teachers based upon their desire to help children, be close to children and see children progress? is group cohesiveness planned?
 - g. are all the above characteristics operational within the limits defined by the larger organization?
 - h. do cooperative relationships exist between the members to accomplish the objectives, the tasks?
 - i. has the interdependence between members and sub-groups of the team been planned for? do they exist?

- j. do the members of the team possess the necessary skills to accomplish the objectives; if not, how can the skills be acquired?
- 10. Rewrite the staffing pattern. Take a second "cut" on the roles.

 Develop some rough job descriptions. Pay some heed to mechanics and nitty-gritty at this point like scheduling, record-keeping, etc.
- 11. Refine the staffing pattern. Role play some typical situations. Get team members to act out what might happen. Evaluate the simulated effects. Are they what was desired?
- 12. <u>Develop performance job indices</u>. Spell out precisely how and under what conditions certain roles are to realize pupil objectives. Under what conditions are role priorities determined, changed? Who is to decide?
- 13. Operationalize staffing pattern. Using a "force-field" analysis decide how to operationalize the staffing pattern, noting barriers, obstacles, etc. Draw up a plan of implementation.
- 14. Decide when to decide to evaluate. Each model should have built-in provisions for feedback and a preliminary determination of when it is and how changes are made in the model after implementation. Criteria may be developed on which to judge the efficacy of what was accomplished.



A review of team behavior. Directions: Examine the comments below and place a (1) in the blank if you think that a team member is performing a task role and a (2) if they are performing a "process role:

•		
	1.	"I think what we have said over the last few minutes is that we favor pre-testing students for basic math skills before we organize the program."
1	2.	"I think we are really bogged down here; let's go on to another point."
: 	3.	"That's another subject, Charlie, let's stay on the role of the Team Leager for now "
<u> </u>	4.	"That's a good idea."

 $^{\rm H}\mbox{We}$ should set some criteria down so we can evaluate the importance of our concerns.

Improving Team Decision Making: A Look at Blocking Behavior

We have previously examined whether group behavior is of a task nature or a process nature. Now, we need to briefly examine "blocking" behavior. This may be defined as hindering a group's effectiveness during a problem solving experience. Below find the steps of the problem solving process. In the first column find an example of a facilitating behavior, in the second an example of a blocking behavior.

THE PROBLEM SOLVING PROCESS

Sto	<u>p</u>	Facilitating Behavior	Blocking Behavior
1.	Defining problem	Initiating activity Clarifying Summarizing Testing and recording	Abstraction Generalization Seeking sympathy
2.	Collecting information	Seeking information Giving information Gate keeping Encouraging	Premature decision making Jumping to conclusions Opinions presented as facts Seeking recognition Going off target Criticizing
3.	Identifying alternative solutions	Furnishing information Coordinating Collaboration Expressing group feeling Diagnosing	Over analytical Attaching ideas to people Self-confessing Withdrawal Competing
4.	Testing alternatives	Reality testing Harmonizing	Judgmental and attitudes
5.	Decision making	Summarizing Testing for concerns or near concerns	Polarization
6.	Taking action	Recording	
7.	Follow-on	Evaluating	



Blocking Behaviors: A Description

- 1. Abstraction over generalizing from a problem rather than dealing with specifics of the particular problem.
- 2. Sacking sympathy trying to induce other group members to be sympathetic to one's problems or misfortunes, deploring one's own situation, or disparaging one's ideas to gain support.
- 3. Premature decision making making decisions before all the facts have been considered.
- 4. Presenting opinions as facts failing to distinguish between personal opinions or biases and the facts in the situation.
- 5. Seeking recognition calling attention to one's self by excessive talking or extraneous ideas.
- 6. Going off target interfering with the progress of the group by going off on a tangent, citing personal experiences irrelevant to the probe in, arguing too much on a point, rejecting ideas without consideration.
- 7. Criticizing working for status by criticizing and blaming others, showing hostility against the group or some individual, deflating the ego or status of others.
- 8. Over-analytical analyzing ideas and alternatives to the point where it blocks group progress.
- 9. Attaching ideas to people rejecting or supporting ideas and suggestions because of the person who proposes them.
- 10. Self-confessing using the group as a sounding board, expressing personal, non-group oriented feelings or points of view.
- 11. Withdrawal acting indifferent or passive, resorting to excessive formality, daydreaming, doedling, whispering to others, wandering from the subject.
- 12. Competing vying with others to produce the best idea, play the most roles, gain favor with the leader.
- 13. Judgmental and attitudes judging ideas or suggestions solely on the basis of one's values or biases.
- 14. Polarization taking an opposite view for purposes of highlighting differences.



Two facilitating behaviors may not be exactly clear. They are "gate keeping" and "harmonizing." Two other terms are also further explained in this section:

Gate keeping means that a person is tying to make it possible for other members to make a contribution to the group by saying, "We haven't heard from Joe yet," or suggesting limited talking time for everyone, so that all have a chance to be heard.

Harmonizing refers to conciliating differences in points of view, making a compromise solution.

Follow-on means comparing consequences or expectations, setting standards and/or guidelines, comparing results, taking corrective action when necessary.

Reality testing refers to testing out alternatives with others who might have to implement decisions, finding out reactions and problems.

Group Activity One

How do you appear to others in a group?

You will be handed an Observers Worksheet in which to participate and to observe a group. On it are listed the problem solving process and facilitating and blocking behaviors. You are to (1) act as an observer and (2) be observed.

Each group should consist of eight (8) people, four participants and four observers, one for each participant. As a participant, you are to follow the problem solving steps listed on the left. As an observer record each time your participant talks, what you think his contribution was, facilitating or blocking.

After a ten minute group discussion, conference with your observer, let him tell you what he saw and show you his observation sheet, then reverse the roles. Select one of the problems below to try on the problem solving process.

Problem Focus One: Imbalanced homework for students.

A parent has complained about the homework policy of the school, saying that there is no coordination between members of the teaching staff, and that on certain nights students receive too much and on other nights, hardly any. The principal has organized you into a faculty sub-committee to present recommendations to the whole faculty for this consideration. One teacher should play a math teacher who feels that homework must be given every night, another teacher who doesn't believe in homework at all, and two others who are of the belief it should be given when necessary. What would you recommend?

Problem Focus Two: The noncomformist colleague.

Several members of the faculty have complained about a nonconforming colleague. Miss B wears exceptionally short skirts, is sometimes late, often refuses to have her children participate in school-wide activities, and sometimes openly defies the general consessus of the faculty on other policies. The principal has called the meeting of the group to consider the problem. One person should play the principal, another Miss B's best friend (though not so non-conforming) and two other frate teachers who take I dim view of the goings on.

Problem Focus Three: Which textbook?

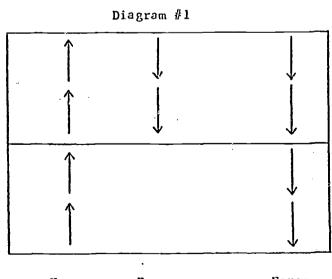
You have been called together by the Director of Curriculum to decide on a new reading text. Two teachers prefer the phonies appraisely, one is ecclectic, another strongly prefers the "language-experience method. Your job is to define the guidelines on which a new textbook may be judged for ultimate adoption.

It looks great but can you implement it? Force field analysis.

Sometimes those in favor of a particular change in some situation fail to implement their change because they don't plan, they are unable to anticipate resistance and build it into a change strategy. The idea of "force field" analysis is very helpful in incorporating this type of planning into a change strategy.

The Force Field

The force field is illustrated in Diagram #1. The force field is comprised of DRIVING FORCES, or those forces or factors which are "pushing" in a particular direction. The others are RESTRAINING FORCES, which may be seen as walls or barriers. They prevent or retard movement toward them.



Present Condition The arrows pointing downward represent the restraining forces. The arrows pointing upward represent restraining forces. The length of each arrow represents the relative strength of the force at that particular point—the longer the arrow the stronger the force. As you ascertain, the force field is made up of several forces of varying strengths which oppose each other. The strength of a particular force may itself vary at different levels.

The present conditions at that level where the sum of all the downward forces and the sum of all the upward forces are equal. It is represented by the line near the center.

Change occurs only as the forces are modified so that the level where the forces are equal is change.

Forces can be changed in the following ways:

- 1 reduce or remove forces;
- 2 strengthen or add forces;
- 3 change the direction of the forces.

The criteria upon which to decide to alter the force field are suggested as follows:

- 1 determine what forces, if any, must be dealt with before
 a change can occur.
- 2 which opposing forces can be reduced with the least effort?
- 3 which augmenting or upward forces can be increased?

Finally, after a change has been brought about by altering the force field, the new condition must be stabilized, since there is always the danger of reverting to the status quo.

Group Activity Two

Simulate a force field analysis of moving your school to a completely non-graded basis in every subject by September.

^{*}Adapted from "Force Field Analysis Applied to A School Situation," by David H. Jnekins from <u>The Planning of Change</u>, Readings in the Applied Behavioral Sciences, Holt, Rinehart, Winston, New York, 1961, pp. 238-244.



SIMULATION ONE

The Dilemma

The Goal of this game: Win as much as you can!

Directions: Divide into four groups. At the end of five minutes each group must make a decision:

- 1. to vote "red"
- 2. to vote "green"

When the votes are tallied, each group is given a score. Scoring is as follows:

R	R	R	R	Red wins 50
R	R	Ŗ	G	Red loses 100 Green wins 300
R	R	G	G	Red loses 150 Green wins 100
R	G	G	G	Red loses 300 Green wins 100
G	. G	G	G	Green loses 50

Groups are not permitted to talk to one another except at bargaining sessions on the rounds marked below. A number of people will need to act as volunteer observers and will need to be briefly prepped before beginning the observation.

		•			
Rou	<u>inds</u>	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
ı.					<u>.</u>
2.	•			***************************************	
3.				W .	
4.	(end-reps. meet behind closed doors)	quagations group and property	معلومين والمستود والم		*-
5.	Double winning	·	<u></u>	**************************************	
6.	•				
7.	(end-reps, meet again behind closed doors)				



Rot	inds	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
8.	Double winning	·			
9.	(reps meet in fish bowl)				
10.	Ten times winnings/ losses				• '
	TOTALS				

A Brief Annotated Bibliography of Suggested Readings

Educational Manpower (Indiana University Press, 1970)

The first book on the subject of differentiated staffing. It is edited by James Olivero and Edward Buffie. Olivero is presently the Director of the Regional Laboratory in Albuquerqu, New Mexico and Buffie is on the staff at Indiana University. Sixteen chapters cover the gamut of ideas in the utilization of paraprofessionals to various types of staff differentiation models, some already implemented, other still theoretical. A book for practitioners.

The Human Side of Enterprise (McGraw-Hill, 1960)

This classic book written by the late Douglas McGregor of MIT explodes many of the traditional organizational concepts of methods of influence and control, managerial climate, an analysis of leadership and other topics. Relates how human organizations can become more humanized and efficient at the same time. McGregor's "Theory Y" notion of organizational climate has become a moving force in the analysis of organizations today. It can be read by laymen since it is a non-technical book.

Remaking the World of the Career Teacher (NCTEPS-NEA, 1966)

One of the key publications by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association which lays a basic foundation for considering staffing changes. The book consists of the speeches of the keynote speakers at the eight TEPS regional meetings. Some are highly provocative and interesting.

Organizations and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools (McGraw-Hill, 1969)

A books of readings edited by Fred D. Carer and Thomas J. Sergiovanni at the University of Illinois. Much research on teacher militancy, effects on specialization and hierarchy, leadership behavior and how to deal with conflict are reported. A highly informative and technical book. For those who have the interest and time to pursue the fine points in some detail.

Innovation in Education: New Directions for the American School.

A statement by the Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development (CED) July, 1968.

A report compiled by the leading businessmen on needed improvements in schools today. The CED Board consists of Emilio G. Collado of Standard Oil Company; Fred Borch, President of General Electric; Marion B. Folsom, of Eastman Kodak; etc. The proposals for change are sweeping and extensive and include recommendations for staff differentiation, cost accountability, experimental activity in pre-schooling, elimination of pupil regimentation, etc. The influence of the CED towards cost benefit programs has been very influential.



Answers for Guide Activities

Check	Point.	One							
1.	3	6.	2	11.	2	16.	owners	21.	owners-
2.	1	7.	1	12.	3	17.	owners-public		clients
3.	1	8.	4	13,	1	18.	members-public	22,	owners-
4.	1	9.	1	14.	4	19.	owners-public		clients
5.	4	10.	3	15.	4	20.	owners	23.	owners- clients- public
-							,	24.	owners- clients- public
								25.	owners- clients- public

Check Point Two

Possible Consequences of Uniformity (time, space, staff)

Learning

- Learning is equated with time spent rather than objectives accomplished;
- 2. Achievement is downgraded because instruction cannot be individualized;
- 3. Some students are rarely challenged, others are continually lost;
- 4. Learning is de-emphasized at the expense of teaching;
- 5. Learning objectives do not have to be identified in performance terms;
- 6. Teacher talents and skills do not have to be recognized or placed with students who need them the most; the resources of the organization are not deployed according to client need, but by formulae;
- 7. The dominant influence in pupil placement is administrative convenience and teacher comfort;
- 8. The student must be "fit in" to the school because the school is not flexible enough to adapt to him.

Teaching

- 1. Teaching consists primarily of telling and talking about "subject matter."
- 2. There is little real program consistency of any kind except at a superficial level since instructional objectives are not identified in terms which are assessable;
- 3. Teaching is a one-way process in which teachers are active, students passive;
- 4. Teaching talent and specialization are not recognized and if they were, the school does not possess a mechanism by which it can be placed with pupils who need it the most;
- 5. Teaching is non-directional and non-specific, it aims for the middle since it does not have to be client-centered since diagnosis is rarely required.



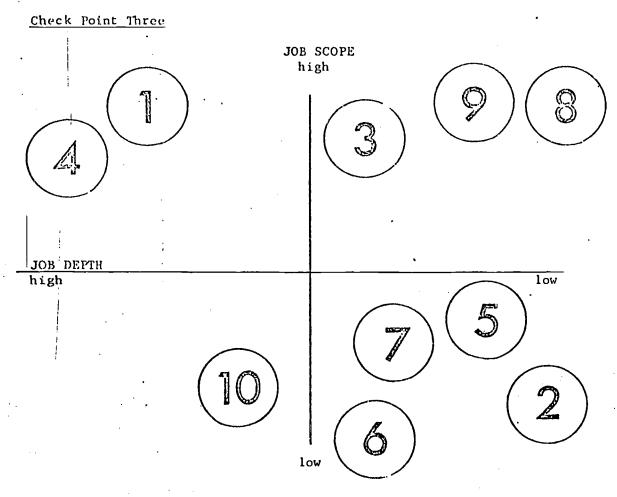
1. Specialization is kept at a very low level;

2. Training programs are extremely expensive in order to upgrade skills;

3. The client (student) cannot be allowed to have difficulties beyond the level of depth of skills possessed by the staff (he could not be helped without referral);

 The school cannot recognize a very great range of client diversity or uniqueness because it lacks the human resources to deal with such diversity;

The needs of clients cannot, therefore, be recognized or met.



1. The relationship between depth/score and salary is the higher one of the other or both, the greater the salary. A person may command a high salary in the following manner: (1) occupy a job with extremely high scope and depth, (2) occupy a job which is high in depth, low in scope if the job is capable of repetitiveness to a very high degree and work time may be expanded, or (3) occupy a job which is low in depth but highly specialized which is used across an organization like an airline pilot (a narrow range of highly specialized and technical

skills) completely accountable for the safety and welfare of a group of people while flying. A fourth way salary may be increased if a job is neither high to scope or depth is to limit the number of people who can perform the job (via a closed shop by controlling supply and demand) or certification of some sort, or both.

- 2. Since our society was historically lacking an aristocracy, status has largely become a matter of salary ranking. This is reflected in a number of surveys in which teaching as an occupation is ranked below other fields which do not require the same formal training, but which pay more. A dramatic increase in teacher salaries will probably not come until at least one of the previous four or more conditions pertain to teaching as an occupation.
- 3. Yes. For example, as job depth and scope expand there is usually a similar expansion in the individual's ability to control his job, that is greater influence in the conditions of employment. More fringe benefits such as opportunities for travel, conferences, etc. Job mobility is usually greater also.

Check Point Four

1.	7	6.	5	11.	6
2.	3	7.	3	12.	6
3.	1	8.	2	13.	3
4.	4	9.	4	14.	5
5.	5	10	5	15	4

Check Point Five

1.	9,1	5.	9,1
2.	1,9	6.	9,9
3.	9,1		5,5
	1 1		•

Check Point Six

- 1. Task summarizing
- 2. Process mediating
- 3. Process gatekeeping
- 4. Process encouraging
- Process standard setting